

Empowering Leadership: An Examination of Fit with Individual Needs

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Abstract

The shift from traditional hierarchical structures toward flexible structures at work requires increasing levels of employee autonomy and has prompted organisations to rely on empowering leadership behaviours. Yet, employees may differ with regards to their preference for empowering behaviours, and therefore the degree of congruence between leader behaviours and employee preferences may influence important workplace outcomes. The current study investigated whether, and how, levels of congruence between empowering leadership behaviours and employee preference for empowering leadership impacted employees' behavioural engagement and job satisfaction. Data was collected from an online survey of 151 employees in two white collar organisations. The results of the polynomial regression analysis revealed that levels of congruence between employee preference for empowering leadership and the leaders' empowering behaviours influenced job satisfaction and behavioural engagement. Based on the outcomes of the study, theoretical and practical implications are discussed along with recommendations for future research.

Introduction

Contemporary organisations are moving away from traditional hierarchical structures toward flexible and horizontal structures to facilitate the development of an innovative and adaptive workforce (Boisot, 1998; Grönroos & Ojasalo, 2004). Companies such as Google, Microsoft, Virgin, and Apple represent prime examples of organisations with flexible structures that are known for innovation and the ability to maintain a competitive advantage. Their success has been largely attributed to sound leadership, particularly the capacity to maximise employee contributions in a fast-paced and low structure environment (Bel, 2010). The evidence available suggests that organisations benefit from leaders who support employees within their role, encourage them to strive for high goals, and influence employees to become more innovative, adaptive and resilient (Jong & Hartog, 2007; McLaurin et al., 2008; Osborn & Marion, 2009). As a result, organisations invest in continuously identifying and developing leadership skills that ensure desired employee and organisational outcomes (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004).

Empowering leadership is widely seen as one of the most effective leadership styles (e.g., Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Empowering leaders are described as having the ability to motivate and guide employees to take risks, and help them become responsible for their individual contributions to the organisation (Yun, Cox, & Sims, 2006). An empowering leader encourages their employees to take on more responsibilities, shares power, heightens a sense of purpose for employee's work, expresses enthusiasm for employee performance, and encourages participation in decision making (Ahearne et al., 2005). The ability to empower employees is therefore an important leadership skill as it contributes to employees' capacity to adapt and enjoy ownership of their work (Arad & Drasgow, 1994; Raub & Robert, 2010).

Despite these promising attributes within the empowering leadership framework, scholars suggest that the relationship between empowering leadership behaviours and employee outcomes is not always straightforward. The extent to which empowering leadership results in positive employee outcomes is influenced by individual and contextual contingencies (Cheong et al., 2016; Lorinkova et al., 2013). Fit between employee preferences, attributes, and organisational characteristics has been investigated in the Person-Environment (P-E) fit literature (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Yu, 2009). Studies within the P-E fit framework strongly support the idea that when fit exists between individual preferences, or attributes, and their work environment, individuals' underlying needs are satisfied; thus resulting in an increase in employee's self-actualization, sense of belonging, and positive workplace behaviours (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Chatman, 1989). Much of this research has been conducted in relation to fit on employee values, goals, and abilities with job, team, or organisational characteristics and how this 'fit' influences workplace attitudes and behaviours (Cable & Judge, 1996; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1991; Colbert, 2004; Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2005; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). Yet, less is known about congruence with regards to leadership styles and its influence on employee outcomes (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2001). For instance, while empowering leadership is generally associated with positive attitudes and behaviours, the extent to which individuals show preference for this style may undermine or enhance its effectiveness. The purpose of the present study is to investigate whether, and how, perceptions of fit between leader empowering behaviours and employee preference for empowering leadership are associated with important workplace attitudes, namely job satisfaction and work engagement.

Empowering Leadership

Empowering leadership is a multidimensional construct that consists of leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, showing concern, and maintaining employees are informed about strategic decisions and changing requirements of an organisation (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000). Empowering leadership theory emphasises the benefits of increasing employee autonomy, decision-making discretion, and fostering initiative. These benefits range from averting feelings of powerlessness, to increasing motivation, meaning, and commitment at work (Chen et al, 2011; Conger et al., 1988). Researchers have highlighted that empowering leaders provide employees with resources, enhanced sense of self-worth (Keller & Dansereau, 1995), increased employee feelings of self-efficacy, and control over their role (Cheong et al., 2016). Empowering leadership behaviours, including the provision of emotional support, rewarding and encouraging employees, expressing confidence in employee's capabilities and mastery, promoting initiative, and building on success, have shown to enhance self-efficacy, adaptability, and to positively influence job performance and satisfaction (Ahearne et al., 2005; Arnold et al., 2001; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Studies suggest that these leadership behaviours are also linked to increased wellbeing and decreased stress levels (Kuoppala et al., 2008; Skakon et al., 2010). Such findings show the important role empowering leaders play in enhancing desired employee outcomes.

An employee factor shown to be positively influenced by empowering leadership is psychological empowerment in which feelings of personal control, competence, and perceived ownership of work outcomes are engaged (Zimmerman, 1990). Psychological empowerment has gained much attention from researchers and practitioners for its association with enhanced organisational effectiveness. This interest is credited to the assumption that empowering employees' have increased expansion of their capabilities and

networks, leading to increased organisational effectiveness in decision making, and the ability to meet goals and targets (Joo & Shim, 2010; Kanter, 1989; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment has been mentioned in the literature, and the research so far suggests that an empowering leader can positively influence the meaningfulness of work by improving employee understanding of the importance of their efforts to achieve the wider organisation's goals (Ahearne et al., 2005). Additionally, empowering leaders show confidence in their employees' ability to perform at a high standard which increases their own confidence and positive self-belief. This is evident in a study conducted by Ahearne et al. (2005) in which they found that empowering leadership was positively associated with self-efficacy. Empowering leadership behaviours are also associated with psychological empowerment as they provide employees with a sense of autonomy and self-determination, which in turn increases their ability to decide how to perform their job (Albrecht et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2007; Vecchio, Justin & Pearce, 2010). The connection between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment suggests that leaders who engage in empowering leadership behaviours are more likely to lead employees to experience higher levels of psychological empowerment greater sense of control over work, improved self-efficacy, and increased understanding of how their work behaviours contribute to the wider results of the organisation (Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Prompted by the findings summarised above, empowering leadership theory assumes that all employees have an internal need for autonomy, challenge, and are able to control and cope with environmental demands (Chen et al., 2011; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Gao, Janssen & Shi, 2011). However, it overlooks the possibility that employees may have unique needs and motivations that shape their preference for workplace resources and characteristics, even for leadership behaviours. Examining employee preference for specific leadership

behaviours represents a good starting point to explain the relationship between empowering leadership and employee outcomes. In fact, some scholars have questioned whether empowering leadership is a fool-proof approach to improve performance and ensure positive employee outcomes (Nickols, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998). For example, Jensen et al. (2013) found that high levels of autonomy can increase the amount of work required from employees, leading to work overload, and becoming detrimental to their performance over time. Other studies found that: empowering leadership can be perceived as burdensome by some employees, resulting in lower performance (Cheong et al., 2016), both directive leadership and empowering leadership are critical at different stages of a project cycle (Lorinkova et al., 2013), and that unregulated empowering leadership behaviours can lead to employees becoming overly confident, resulting in an overestimation of competence and subsequent errors (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

These results highlight that empowering leadership behaviours may not always lead to positive outcomes, and can in some situations be detrimental. Nevertheless, the mainstream research on empowering leadership assumes that this style will be associated with positive outcomes, and that all employees will benefit from an empowering leader (Maynard et al., 2012). This calls for further examination of the contingencies that explain discrepant effects of empowering leadership on employee attitudes and performance.

Employee-Leader Fit

Fit can be explained as the degree of congruence between two variables (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Shanock et al., 2010). For example, the person-environment fit (P-E fit) research has examined the degree of fit between employee and manager values and goals in relation to attitudes, performance, withdrawal behaviours, strain, and tenure (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). Such studies have shown that perceived P-E fit is positively

related to valuable work-related outcomes. Other studies of fit have shown that high levels of person-supervisor (P-S) fit are positively associated with job satisfaction and overall performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Recent studies have shown that P-S fit goes beyond the degree of congruence with the supervisor's values and personality (Larson et al., 2013), and suggest that there is no single leadership style that elicits positive employee outcomes in every situation (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Engen, Leeden, & Willemssen, 2001; Van Eeden et al., 2008). However, while a large body of leadership research has focused on the direct impact of leadership characteristics on employee outcomes (Arnold, Turner, Barling, Kelloway, & McKee, 2007; Van Dierendonck, 2004), little research has examined whether and how fit between individual preference for leadership style, and the extent to which the leader enacts a particular style (i.e. I-L fit), influences employee outcomes (Lee, Choi, Youn & Chun, 2017; Perko et al., 2016). As a result, less is known about employee preference for empowering leadership behaviours in relation to leadership style and how this affects important workplace outcomes. Given the recent calls for further research on congruence between leadership styles and employee preference for these styles in the P-E fit literature, along with the inconsistent findings in the empowering leadership literature, the present study aims to investigate whether, and how, levels of congruence between empowering leadership behaviours and employee preference for empowering leadership impact on employees' behavioural engagement and job satisfaction.

Employee-Leader Fit and Workplace Outcomes

Job Satisfaction

As an important correlate of performance, turnover, and organisational commitment, job satisfaction remains a popular way for practitioners to assess individual attitudes toward work and the organisation (Benkhoff, 1997; Mobley, 1977; Mohammad et al., 2006). Certain

leadership styles have been shown to increase job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Lok & Crawford, 2004). For instance, transformational leadership behaviours, including charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, and authentic leadership styles tend to show stronger correlations to job satisfaction compared to a transactional leadership style (Emery, Barker, 2007; Wong & Laschinger, 2012). Similarly, leader-member exchange quality can enhance job satisfaction (Graen et al., 1982). Such findings suggest that particular leadership behaviours can influence job satisfaction. In addition, a meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) has shown that job satisfaction is significantly influenced by P-S fit, namely perceptions of values and personality congruence with the leader, highlighting the importance of congruence between employees and their leader.

While the job satisfaction literature has not directly examined its relationship with empowering leadership, it suggests that this workplace attitude is positively associated with the experience of psychological empowerment (e.g. Fuller et al., 1999; Ugboro et al., 2000). Moreover, feelings of fit with the organisation have been positively related to the experience of psychological empowerment which in turn influences job satisfaction (Gregory, Albritton & Osmonbekov, 2010). Consistent with this research, it is likely that congruence between employees' preference for specific empowering leadership behaviours, and experienced empowering leadership behaviours, is likely to be positively associated with job satisfaction, while incongruence is likely to be associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1): High fit between levels of a) leading by example, b) participative decision-making, c) coaching, d) informing, e) concern (empowering leadership behaviours) and employee preference for empowering leadership will be positively associated with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2): Low fit, represented by incongruence between a) leading by example, b) participative decision-making, c) coaching, d) informing, e) concern (empowering leadership behaviours) and employee preference for empowering leadership will be negatively associated with job satisfaction.

Behavioural Work Engagement

Work engagement is a motivational construct best defined by vigour (e.g. high levels of mental endurance), absorption (e.g. concentrated and engrossed in one's work), and dedication (e.g. high participation and feelings of pride) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Such variables have shown to decrease the likelihood of employees experiencing burnout symptoms at work which is a lead threat to health and wellbeing (Luthans, 2002). Further, studies have shown that availability of resources (e.g. leader support) can enhance work engagement through the motivational process (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Behavioural engagement is a dimension of work engagement which is described as a psychological state that motivates individuals to behave in a way that enhances performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Such behaviours can involve putting in extra effort into tasks and performing above and beyond expectations. Empowering leaders have been shown to enhance employee engagement through motivating employees to take control of their own work environment (Tuckey, Bakker, Dollard, 2012).

As empowering leadership involves enhancing individual work engagement through a motivational process, work engagement is an important variable to measure as a leadership outcome (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Leaders at multiple levels of an organisation create a work environment, through empowering behaviours, that influences the psychological empowerment of individual employees (Hechanova et al., 2006). This is evident in studies showing that employees who rated their leader higher on empowering leadership behaviours experience higher levels of work engagement (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014). Further,

employees who rate the quality of exchanges higher with their leaders (LMX) have been associated with higher work engagement (Agarwal et al., 2012). For such reasons, it is predicted that when employees rate their manager high on empowering behaviours, and also show high levels of preference for empowering leadership behaviours, it is likely to be associated with higher levels of work engagement. Conversely, if employees rate their leaders high on empowering leadership, yet express low preference for empowering leadership, or vice-versa (i.e., low fit), this is likely to be associated with lower work engagement.

Hypothesis 3): High fit between levels of a) leading by example, b) participative decision-making, c) coaching, d) informing, e) concern (empowering leadership behaviours) and employee preference for empowering leadership will be positively associated with work engagement.

Hypothesis 4): Low fit, represented by incongruence between a) leading by example, b) participative decision-making, c) coaching, d) informing, e) concern (empowering leadership behaviours) and employee preference for empowering leadership will be negatively associated with work engagement.

Examining Fit Using Polynomial Regression

The current study examines whether and how fit between empowering leadership behaviours and employee preference for empowering leadership impacts outcome variables. Fit in this instance will occur when there is congruence between individual preference (for empowering leadership) and empowering leadership behaviours at high or low levels of these variables. This will be described as I-L fit (Individual x Leader fit). Additionally, misfit will occur when empowering leadership behaviours exceed or fall below employee preference. The current study will shed some light on whether and how fit between empowering leadership and individual preference for empowering behaviours influence work engagement and job satisfaction, testing the assumption that these outcomes can be diminished if there is low fit.

In recent years, fit has been examined using polynomial regression as opposed to Similarity Indices. While Profile Similarity Indices assess difference scores and profile correlations to assess congruence, this approach to fit has gained criticism for being overly restrained and overlooking the sources of difference (Cronbach, 1958). Moreover, profile similarity indices have been frequently used when researching congruence, also known as fit or similarity, to test organisational variables. While profile similarity indices have been used to measure person/organisation fit, supervisor/employee fit, and organisation/environment fit to produce an overall single congruence score, it is conceptually ambiguous (Edwards et al., 1993). For instance, one study examined fit between perceived supervisor and organisational support on affective commitment and found that polynomial regression was a better, more informed, approach to difference scores between two variables than profile similarity indices (Shanock et al., 2010). While polynomial regression coefficients can be difficult to interpret, response surface methodology can be used to facilitate the interpretation of results (Edwards et al., 1993). Therefore, the current study will examine fit or congruence through response surface methodology using polynomial regression.

Method

Participants and Procedure

A total of 151 white collar workers from two public sector organisations agreed to participate in the study. The sample consisted of female (62.5%) and male (36.2%) respondents with 14.6% holding managerial positions. Respondents also stated their current organisation tenure in years ($M = 7.35$, $SD = 5.37$) which ranged from 1 month (2%) to more than 10 years (.7%).

An online questionnaire was distributed by HR representatives within each organisation via an email containing the survey link. All participants were required to give consent before completing the survey (see appendix A). The survey contained an information page. Participants were offered the opportunity to complete the survey at work during their normal working hours. They were informed that the questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. All participants were given the opportunity to go into the draw to win one of three \$300 grocery vouchers by providing an email address, which was collected independently from the survey to ensure anonymity. The questionnaire was open for three weeks with a reminder sent out one week before the close off date. The current study was also approved by the Human Ethics Committee (see appendix B).

Measures

Empowering Leadership. Participants completed the 38-item Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ; Arnold et al., 2000). The questionnaire covers five key dimensions of empowering leadership behaviours: leading by example with 5 items (the extent to which the leader acts as an example for the team) with a coefficient alpha of .91, participative decision-making (the extent to which the leader takes team members' comments into account and involves team members in decision making) with a coefficient alpha of .86, coaching with 11 items (the degree to which a leader supports employee development) with a coefficient alpha of .90, informing with 6 items (the degree to which a leader informs employees about company rules and decisions) with a coefficient alpha of .85, and showing concern/interacting with the team with 10 items (the degree to which the leader is genuinely concerned about team members' wellbeing) with a coefficient alpha of .89. The items were modified to "my supervisor" from "our team supervisor". Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample item from the scale is "My supervisor encourages me to solve problems on my own". Participants also

completed an identical version of the ELQ, asking them about their desired levels of empowering leadership behaviours. A sample item is “I prefer a leader who sets high standards for performance by his/her own behaviour”.

Job Satisfaction. The 3-item Overall Job Satisfaction scale (Bowling et al., 2008) was used in the current study. Responses were obtained using a 7-point Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. An example item is “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” The scale’s reported coefficient alpha ranges from .67 to .95 (Hochwarter et al., 1999).

Work Engagement. The 5-item behavioural engagement subscale of engagement was used in the study (Nimon et al., 2016) and asks respondents about perceived level of engagement. Responses were obtained using a 7-point Likert scale with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. A sample item was “I do more than is expected of me at work”. The scale’s reported coefficient alpha is .91 (Imandin, Bisschoff, Botha, 2014).

Analysis

Polynomial regressions were conducted to test the congruence between empowering leadership preference and empowering leader behaviours. Response surface methodology examined the slope curvature of I-L fit and with outcome variables. Prior to the analyses, the scores for perceived and preferred empowering leadership were centred to reduce multicollinearity. Polynomial regression using response surface analysis takes a unique statistical approach (Shanock et al., 2010). It enables researchers to be able to measure how combinations of two predictors (e.g. I-L fit) relate with outcome variables (e.g. behavioural engagement and job satisfaction). Using polynomial regression has shown to avoid collapsing the two variables into a single score to capturing fit (Edwards, 1996). For the current I-L fit, both I and L will be counted as predictors (I^2 , $I \times L$, and L^2). The items assessing employee

preference to empowering leadership were grouped together into five empowering leadership behaviours. The mean score for each dimension was calculated and centred through subtracting the mean of the variable from the empowering behaviour dimensions. This was followed by calculating interaction terms and squared variables in order to test congruence between employee preference and empowering leadership style. The centred employee preference was then multiplied with empowering leadership style ($I \times L$), as well as multiplying the centred individual preference (I) and empowering leadership style (L) behaviours by themselves (I^2 and L^2). Both outcomes variables (work engagement and job satisfaction) were regressed on each predictor variable. The coefficients reported within the analysis were then used for a response surface pattern. There were three-dimensional surface plots to test their relationships of fit with each other.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations for the variables in the current study. As Table 1 depicts, means for all variables sit above 5.4 which reflects relatively high observed empowering leadership behaviours, and, across the board, a high preference for empowering leadership behaviours. The means show that employees provided higher ratings to both individual preference to lead by example ($M = 6.44$, $SD = .95$) and individual preference to participative decision-making ($M = 6.45$, $SD = .72$). With regards to observed empowering leadership style, participative decision-making ($M = 5.90$, $SD = 1.16$) and concern ($M = 5.82$, $SD = .97$) obtained the highest means.

With respect to the correlations, work engagement was positively and significantly associated with all dimensions of individual preference for empowering leadership behaviours, leading by example, participative decision-making, coaching, informing, and concern. Yet, work engagement was not significantly associated with observed empowering

leadership behaviours. Job satisfaction was positively and significantly associated with both observed and preferred empowering leadership behaviours.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and Intercorrelations of variables

Measure	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Leading Sup	5.77	1.25	(.95)											
2. Participation Sup	5.90	1.16	.68**	(.90)										
3. Coaching Sup	5.66	.94	.63**	.64**	(.95)									
4. Informing Sup	5.47	1.15	.57**	.57**	.76**	(.96)								
5. Concern Sup	5.82	.97	.55**	.69**	.79**	.74**	(.94)							
6. Leading Ind	6.44	.95	.37**	.36**	.40**	.35**	.46**	(.86)						
7. Participation Ind	6.49	.72	.28**	.38**	.39**	.29**	.43**	.77**	(.78)					
8. Coaching Ind	6.33	.65	.21*	.27**	.34**	.38**	.39**	.61**	.72**	(.93)				
9. Informing Ind	6.19	.97	.09	.15	.16	.35**	.19*	.42**	.47*	.74**	(.95)			
10. Concern Ind	6.31	.95	.17*	.17*	.27**	.27**	.36**	.49**	.56**	.79**	.64**	(.88)		
11. Work Engagement	5.74	.81	.05	.02	.13	.15	.06	.31**	.29**	.37**	.26**	.27**	(.89)	
12. Job Satisfaction	5.69	1.13	.30**	.24**	.33**	.28**	.34**	.35**	.30**	.30**	.25**	.29**	.41**	(.92)

Note: N= 151. *p<.05. **p<.01.

Table 2 displays the results of the polynomial regression analysis, specifically the regression coefficients and surface test scores for the relationships between work engagement and job satisfaction, and fit along preferred and observed empowering leadership dimensions.

Table 2. *Polynomial Regression Results for Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction*

Empowering Leadership Behaviour	Work Engagement	Job Satisfaction
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Leading By Example		
Constant	5.75** (.08)	5.78** (.11)
Individual Preference (I)	.60 (.16)	.53** (.23)
Leadership style (L)	-.12 (.09)	.05 (.13)
I ²	.13 (.14)	-.24 (.19)
I x L	-.03 (.11)	.22 (.15)
L ²	.13 (.14)	-.03 (.05)
R ²	.11 (.78)	.17 (1.06)
F	3.70**	5.67**
Surface tests		
X = Y slope	.48** (.13)	.58** (.20)
X = Y curvature	.07 (.09)	-.05 (.19)
X = -Y slope	-.72** (.22)	-.49** (.32)
X = -Y curvature	.13 (.11)	-.49** (.07)
Participative Decision Making		
Constant	5.76** (.08)	5.65** (.11)
Individual Preference (I)	.17 (.15)	.14 (.22)
Leadership style (L)	-.01 (.09)	.26 (.14)
I ²	-.04 (.12)	-.23** (.17)
I x L	-.15 (.09)	.04 (.13)
L ²	.03 (.04)	-.07 (.05)
R ²	.15 (.76)	.13 (1.08)
F	4.94**	4.33**
Surface tests		
X = Y slope	.16 (.14)	.41** (.19)
X = Y curvature	-.16 (.06)	-.16 (.09)
X = -Y slope	-.18 (.22)	-.49** (.31)
X = -Y curvature	.14 (.09)	-.24** (.14)

Note. N=* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 2 (cont'd). *Polynomial Regression Results for Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction (cont'd)*

Empowering Leadership Behaviour	Work Engagement	Job Satisfaction
	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>
Coaching		
Constant	5.79** (.07)	5.78** (.11)
Individual Preference (I)	.27** (.15)	.36** (.22)
Leadership style (L)	.15 (.09)	.22** (.14)
I ²	-.07 (.14)	-.34** (.21)
I x L	-.27** (.15)	-.25** (.22)
L ²	-.09 (.05)	-.04 (.07)
R ²	.21** (.73)	.17 (1.05)
F	7.50**	5.81**
Surface tests		
X = Y slope	.42** (.13)	.58** (.20)
X = Y curvature	-.25** (.08)	-.13 (.15)
X = -Y slope	-.12 (.21)	-.14 (.31)
X = -Y curvature	.29** (.12)	-.63** (.18)
Informing		
Constant	5.72** (.08)	5.75** (.11)
Individual Preference (I)	.09 (.12)	.07 (.18)
Leadership style (L)	.16 (.08)	.25** (.12)
I ²	.04 (.09)	-.33** (.14)
I x L	-.29** (.08)	.12 (.12)
L ²	.07 (.04)	.05 (.06)
R ²	.17 (.74)	.13 (1.08)
F	5.86**	4.27**
Surface tests		
X = Y slope	.26** (.10)	.33** (.16)
X = Y curvature	-.19 (.06)	-.16 (.12)
X = -Y slope	.06 (.18)	.17 (.26)
X = -Y curvature	.41** (.11)	-.40** (.13)
Concern		
Constant	5.72** (.08)	5.85** (.11)
Individual Preference (I)	.37** (.14)	.35** (.19)
Leadership style (L)	.00 (.09)	.17 (.14)
I ²	-.02 (.16)	-.69** (.22)
I x L	-.09 (.14)	.60** (.19)
L ²	.08 (.05)	-.06 (.07)
R ²	.10 (.72)	.21** (.99)
F	3.352**	7.59**
Surface tests		
X = Y slope	.37** (.12)	.52** (.17)
X = Y curvature	-.03 (.16)	-.15 (.22)
X = -Y slope	-.37** (.21)	-.18 (.29)
X = -Y curvature	.15 (.18)	-1.35** (.25)

Note. N=* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Leading by example. With respect to work engagement, the significant X = Y slope ($b = .48, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference for leading by example and high levels of this behaviour in leaders was associated with high levels of work

engagement, which supports hypothesis 3a. The significant $X = -Y$ slope ($b = -.72, p < .01$), which shows that even as individual preference to 'leading by example' increases and 'leading by example' leader behaviour decreases (i.e., low fit or incongruence), work engagement increases. Along with the remaining non-significant slopes, this suggests that incongruence with respect to 'leading by example' is not detrimental to work engagement, failing to support hypothesis 4a.

With respect to job satisfaction, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .58, p < .01$) suggests that agreement at high levels of 'leading by example' individual preference and leader behaviour are associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, which supports hypothesis 1a. Conversely, fit at low levels of preferred and observed 'leading by example' behaviours are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. The significant $X = -Y$ slope ($b = -.49, p < .01$) shows that even as individual preference to 'leading by example' increases and 'leading by example' leader behaviour decreases, job satisfaction increases. However, the significant $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = -.49, p < .01$) suggests that discrepancy or incongruence at decreasing levels of individual preference and increasing levels of 'leading by example' leader behaviour are associated with decreasing job satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 2a.

Participative Decision-Making. There were no significant results found for slopes and curvature analyses of 'participative decision-making' in relation to work engagement indicating that fit between individual preference and 'participative decision-making' leader behaviour did not impact work engagement.

With respect to job satisfaction, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .41, p < .01$) shows that fit at high levels of both 'participative decision-making' individual preference and leader behaviour is associated with high levels of job satisfaction, which supports hypothesis 1b. Further, fit at low levels of preferred and observed 'participative decision-making'

behaviours are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. The significant $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = -.24, p < .01$) shows that discrepancy or incongruence at high levels of individual preference and low levels of 'participative decision-making' was associated with lower job satisfaction. This suggests that individuals who feel that their manager provides them with too little 'participative decision-making' behaviours, job satisfaction is likely to decrease, supporting hypothesis 2b.

Coaching. Regarding work engagement, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .42, p < .01$) indicates that as levels of both individual preference for 'coaching' and leader coaching behaviours increase, work engagement increases, supporting hypothesis 3c. The significant $X = Y$ curvature ($b = -.25, p < .01$) and the significant $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = .29, p < .01$) work engagement decreases at low levels of both individual preference and 'coaching' leader behaviours.

Referring to job satisfaction, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .58, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference and 'coaching' leader behaviour are associated with high levels of job satisfaction, which supports hypothesis 1c. Conversely, fit at low levels of preferred and observed coaching behaviours are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. The significant $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = -.63, p < .01$) suggests that discrepancy or incongruence between individual preference and 'coaching' leader behaviours decreased job satisfaction. This suggests that when individuals desire a high level of 'coaching' and their supervisor provides low levels of 'coaching', individuals are less satisfied at work. It also shows that individuals who desire low levels of 'coaching' are more likely to experience low job satisfaction when their supervisor provides high levels of 'coaching' behaviours, supporting hypothesis 2c.

Informing. With regards to work engagement, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .26, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference for ‘informing’ leader behaviours and high levels of this leader behaviour was associated with higher work engagement, supporting hypothesis 3d. The positive $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = .41, p < .01$) was also significant, which shows that as individual preference to ‘informing’ decreases and ‘informing’ leader behaviour increases, work engagement decreases, supporting hypothesis 4d.

Referring to job satisfaction, the $X = Y$ slope ($b = .33, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference and ‘informing’ leader behaviour are associated with high levels of job satisfaction, which supports hypothesis 1d. The $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = -.40, p < .01$) was also significant, highlighting that discrepancy or incongruence between individual preference and ‘informing’ leader behaviours, resulted in a decrease of job satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 2d. The findings suggest that when individuals desire high levels of ‘informing’, in the presence of low ‘informing’ behaviours by their manager, individuals are less likely to feel satisfied at work.

Concern. With regards to work engagement, the significant $X = Y$ slope ($b = .37, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference and ‘concern’ leader behaviour are associated with high levels of work engagement, which supports hypothesis 3e. The $X = -Y$ slope ($b = -.37, p < .01$) was also significant, which shows that discrepancy is associated with increased work engagement when levels of ‘concern’ leader behaviour are high, regardless of individual preference.

Referring to job satisfaction, the $X = Y$ slope ($b = .52, p < .01$) indicates that fit at high levels of individual preference and ‘concern’ leader behaviour are associated with high levels of job satisfaction, which supports hypothesis 1e. The $X = -Y$ curvature ($b = 1.35, p < .01$) was also significant, highlighting discrepancy or incongruence between individual

preference and ‘concern’ leader behaviours, resulted in a decrease of job satisfaction, supporting hypothesis 2e. Such findings suggest that when individuals do not desire high levels of ‘concern’, in the presence of high ‘concern’ behaviours by their manager, individuals are less likely to be satisfied at work.

Congruence between coaching and employee preference for coaching on work engagement

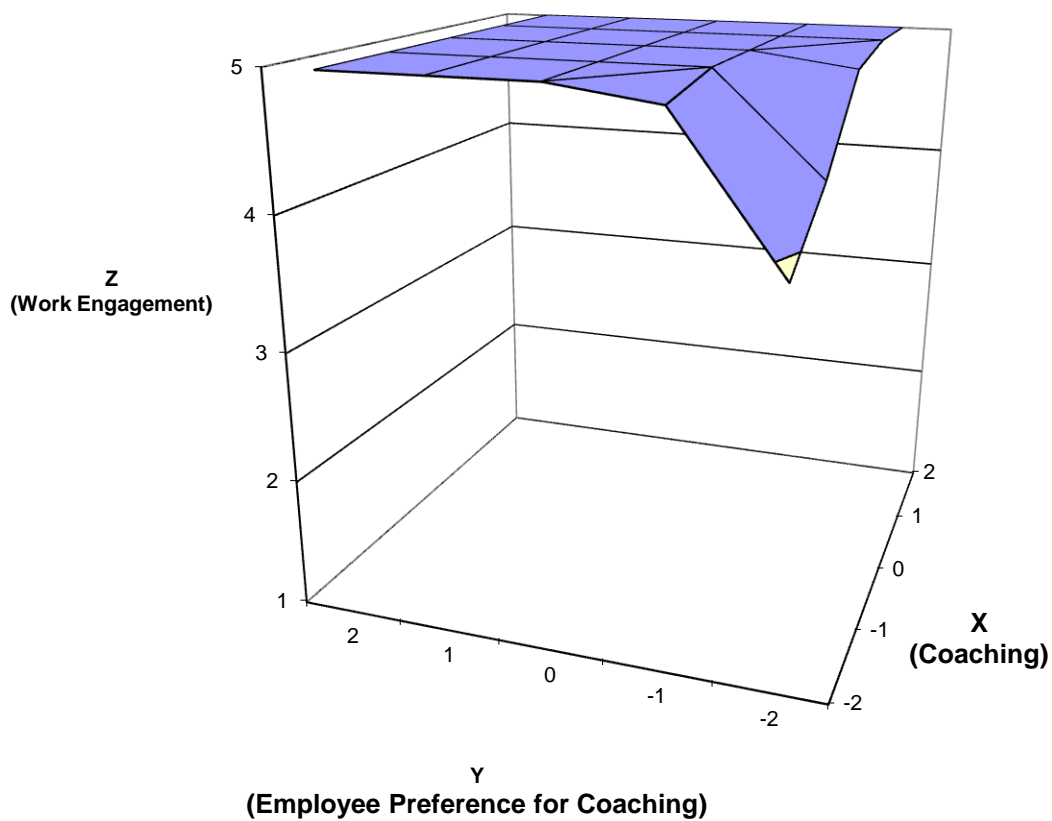


Figure 1. Response Surface relating congruence between coaching and employee preference for coaching to work engagement

Congruence between informing and employee preference for coaching on work engagement

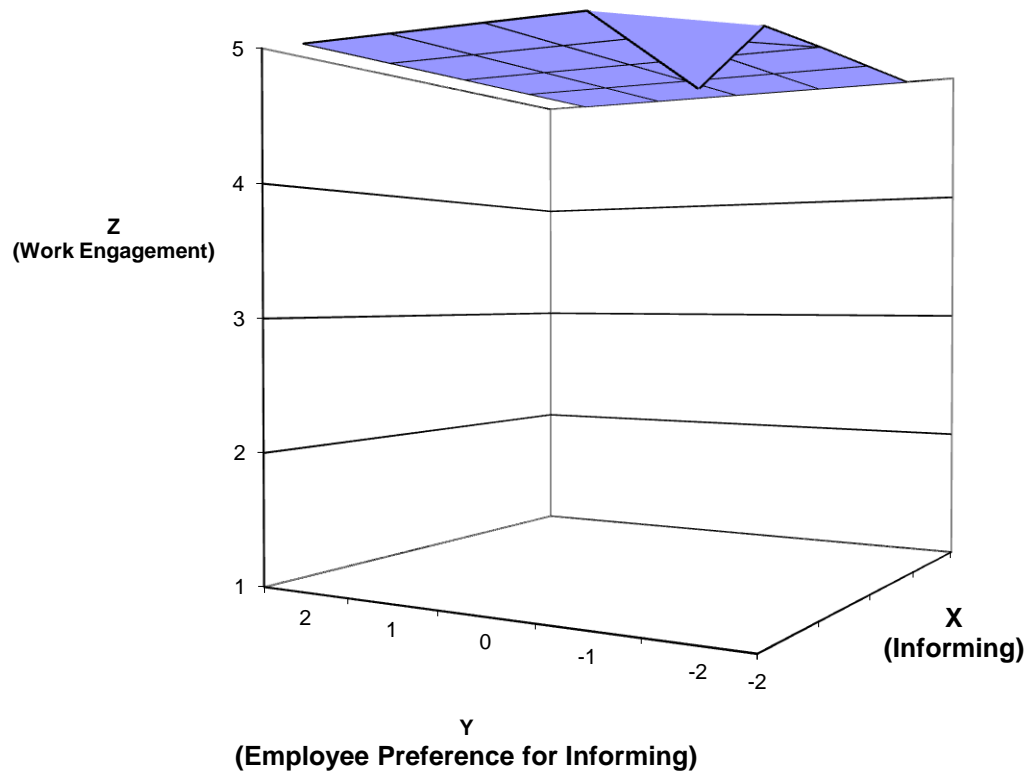


Figure 2. Response Surface relating congruence between informing and employee preference for informing to work engagement

Congruence between leading by example and employee preference for leading by example on job satisfaction

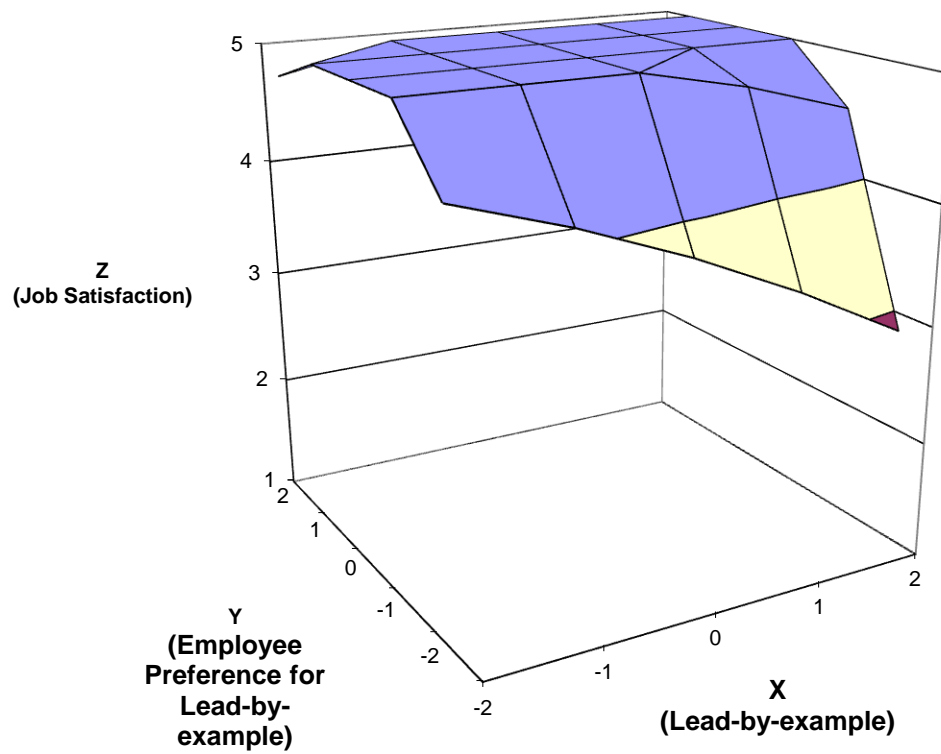


Figure 3. Response Surface relating congruence between leading by example and employee preference for leading by example to job satisfaction

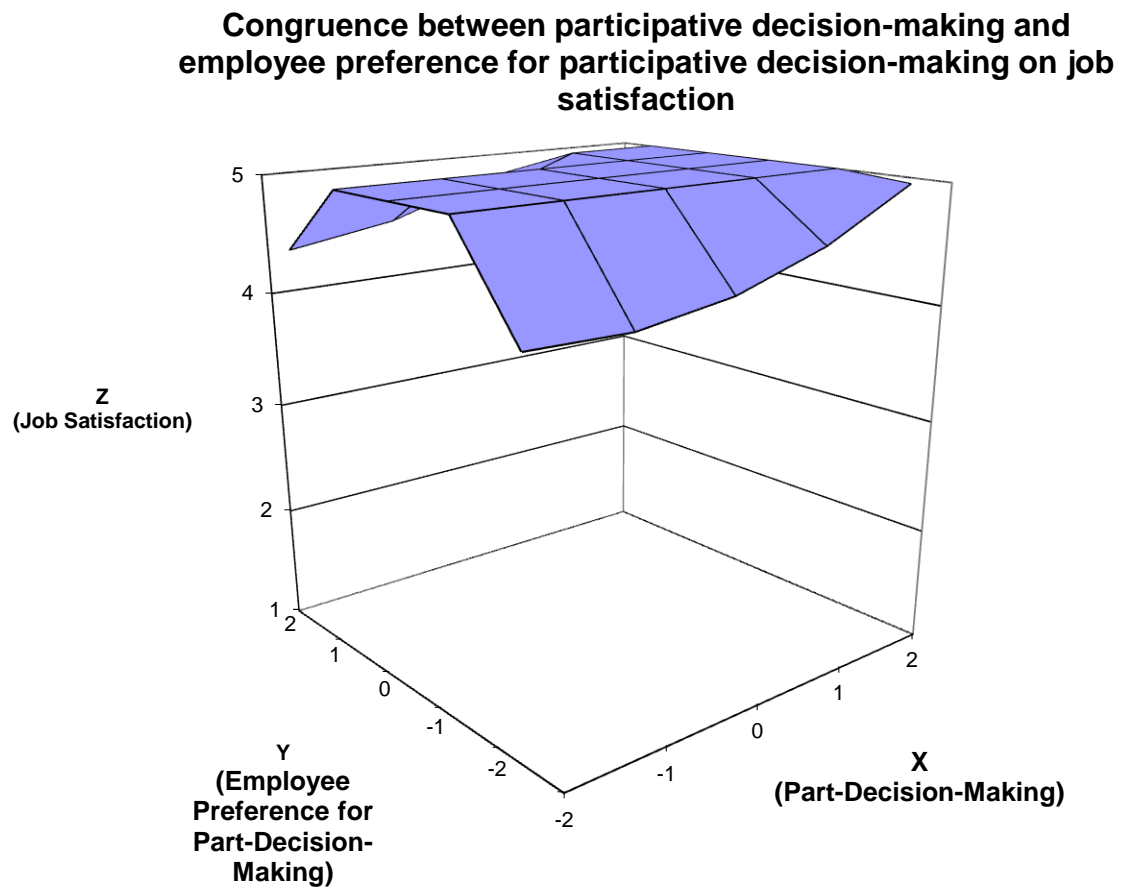


Figure 4. Response Surface relating congruence between participative decision-making and employee preference for participative decision-making to job satisfaction

Congruence between coaching and employee preference for coaching on job satisfaction

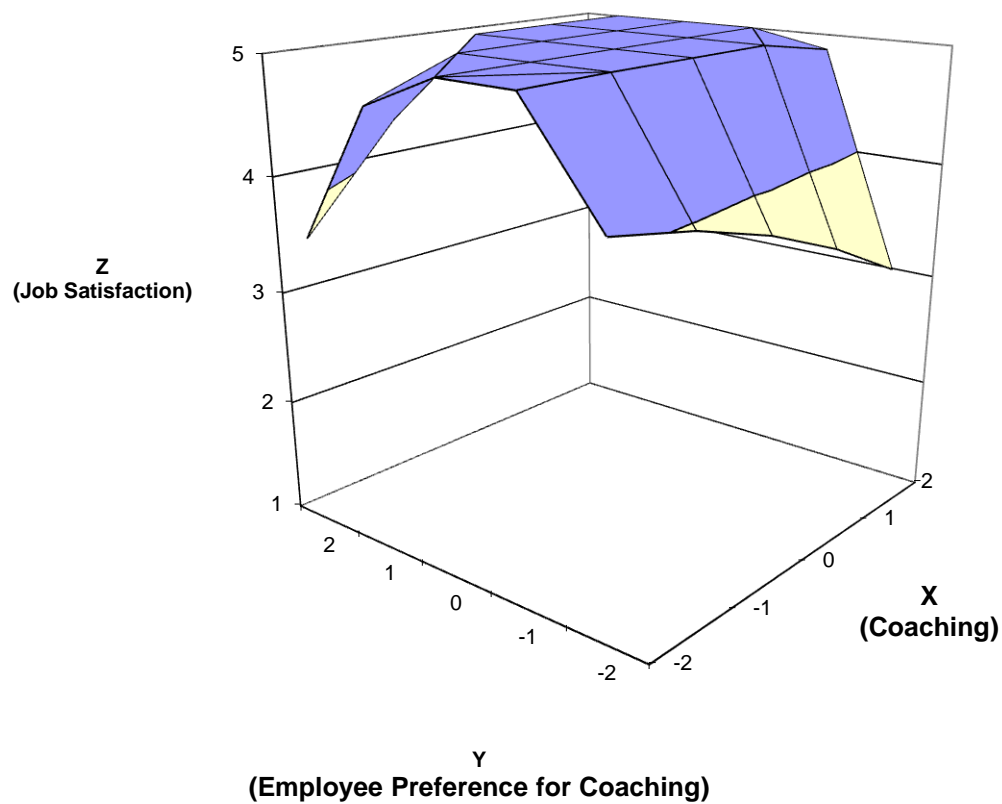


Figure 5. Response Surface relating congruence between coaching and employee preference for coaching to job satisfaction

**Congruence between informing and employee preference for
informing on job satisfaction**

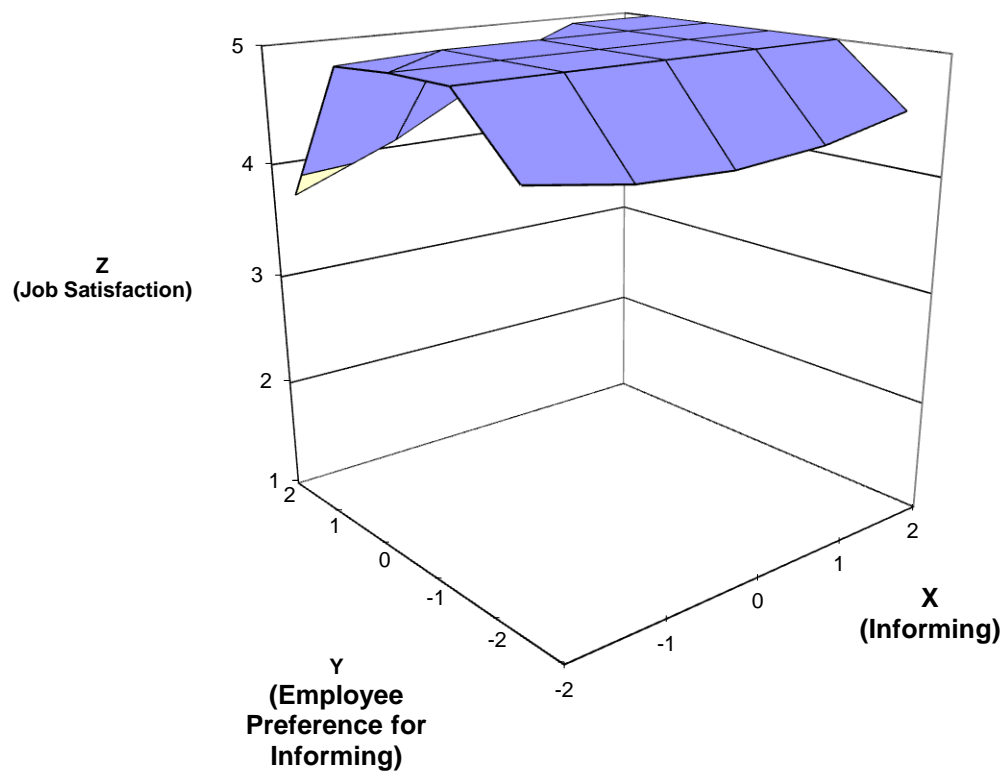


Figure 6. Response Surface relating congruence between informing and employee preference for informing to job satisfaction

Congruence between concern and employee preference for concern on job satisfaction

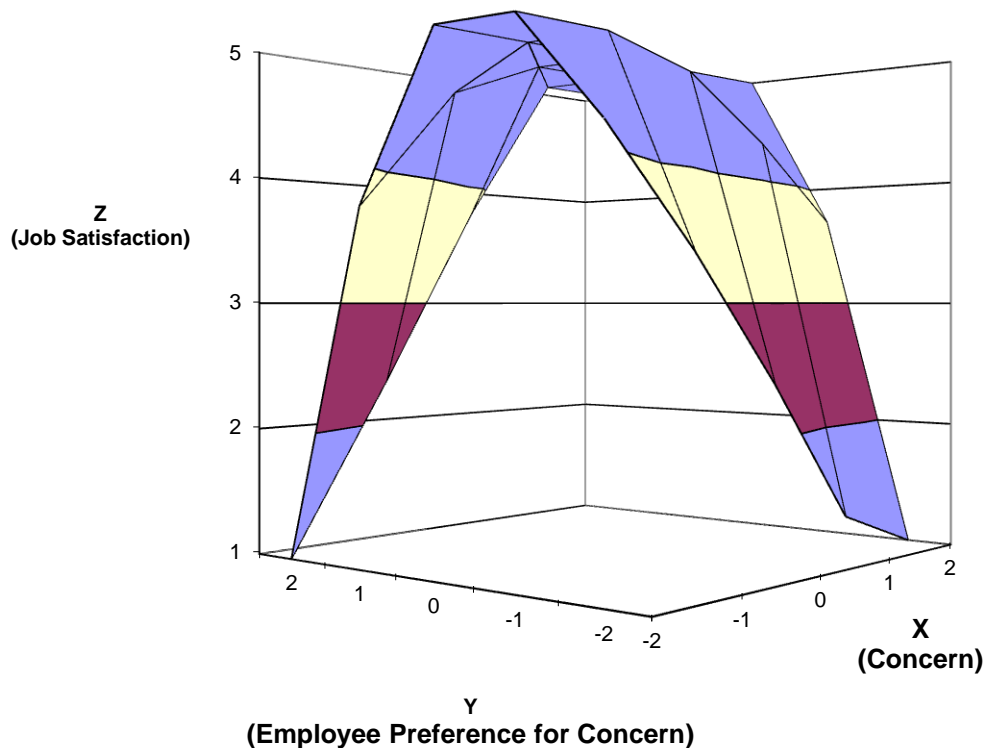


Figure 7. Response Surface relating congruence between concern and employee preference for concern to job satisfaction

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d and 1e proposed that congruence or high fit at high preference for empowering leadership behaviours and high levels of empowering leadership would be positively associated with job satisfaction. The results support these hypotheses. Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, 2d and 2e proposed that incongruence or low fit between high preference for empowering leadership behaviours and empowering leadership would be negatively associated to job satisfaction. The results supported these hypotheses, as across all dimensions, job satisfaction decreased as a result of low fit either at low levels of preference

with high levels of empowering leadership, or high levels of preference and low empowering leadership. This indicates that, in general, discrepancy between perceived and preferred empowering behaviours is detrimental to job satisfaction. However, as evidenced by the results and accompanying figures, the impact of empowering leadership incongruence on job satisfaction is influenced by some dimensions of empowering leadership (e.g., concern) more than others.

Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d and 3e proposed that congruence or high fit between high preference for empowering leadership behaviours and high levels of empowering leadership would be positively associated with work engagement. The results supported hypotheses 3a, 3d and 3e, while hypotheses 3b and 3c were not supported. Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d and 4e proposed that incongruence or low fit between preference for empowering leadership behaviours and empowering leadership would be negatively associated to work engagement. The results supported hypotheses 4c and 4d, while hypotheses 4a, 4b and 4e were not supported.

Discussion

The current study was conducted to examine whether, and how, congruence between preference for empowering leadership and perceptions of leaders' empowering leadership behaviours (leading by example, participative decision-making, informing, and concern) influenced employee job satisfaction and work engagement. It was hypothesized that incongruence in empowering leadership preferences and experiences would result in lower work engagement and job satisfaction, while congruence, especially at high levels of empowering leadership behaviours and employee preference, would be positively associated with these outcomes. The results of this study partially supported the hypotheses outlined for

work engagement. Work engagement had a strong positive relationship with empowering leadership, irrespective of employee preference. Such findings are consistent with previous literature suggesting that empowering leadership has a positive relationship with work engagement (Lee, Idris & Delfabbro, 2017; Park, Kim, Yoon & Joo, 2017). Nevertheless, incongruence at low levels of employee preference for ‘coaching’ and ‘informing’ leadership and high levels of these empowering leadership behaviours resulted in lower levels of engagement. Referring to the ‘coaching’ dimension, there was support for the hypothesis that incongruence at low levels of employee preference and high levels of ‘coaching’ behaviour by leaders would be associated with lower employee engagement. This suggests that while behavioural engagement has a positive relationship with empowering leadership, as shown in much of the literature (e.g. Albrecht & Andreetta, 2011; Tuckey, Bakker & Dollard, 2012), organisations may benefit from considering the merits of this leadership approach in relation to individual preference to ‘coaching’. Further, incongruence at high levels of individual preference for ‘leading by example’, ‘participative decision-making’, ‘coaching’, ‘informing’, and ‘concern’ and low levels of these empowering leadership behaviours did not significantly affect engagement levels. This suggests that even when individual preference for those empowering leadership behaviours is not matched by leader behaviours, they will remain engaged.

With regards to job satisfaction, fit at high levels of preferred and observed empowering leadership behaviour were associated with higher levels of job satisfaction. Further, incongruence between preferred and observed empowering leadership behaviour were associated with low job satisfaction across several dimensions. For instance, incongruence at low levels of individual preference for ‘leading by example’ and high levels of this empowering leadership behaviour was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. This suggests that when employees feel pressured or alienated by the leader’s high standards

of performance and continual striving for excellence, behaviours that comprise the leading by example dimension, job satisfaction is likely to decrease. While other studies have found that a leader who leads by example plays an important role in shaping employee behaviour through role modelling and influencing employees (e.g. Schraeder et al., 2005; Srivastava et al., 2006), the current study suggests that role modelling behaviours may not always elicit positive employee outcomes when specific behaviours diverge from those expected or preferred by employees. Further, leading by example is defined as a set of behaviours that necessarily reflect the leader's view of what constitutes desirable work behaviour, and a high level of commitment to his or her own work (e.g. Arnold et al., 2000). However, part of a leader's role is to enact behaviours that are in line with the culture of the organisation (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Thus if a leader is enacting role modelling behaviours consistent with their goals and values, yet at odds with the values and cultural norms of the organisation, this discrepancy may have a negative impact on employee attitudes and performance. This highlights the leadership challenge of modelling behaviours that align personal style and goals, individuals' expectations, and organisational values and culture.

In relation to 'participative decision-making', incongruence at low levels of individual preference and high levels of empowering leadership behaviours was associated with lower job satisfaction. This is consistent with literature, which implies that participative decision-making can lead to distrust within their leader and low commitment to the organisation when individuals perceive that decisions are not fair, nor do they support the views of the individual (Korsgaard et al., 1995). Further, incongruence at high levels of individual preference for 'coaching' and low levels of this empowering leadership behaviour, indicates that individuals who desire their manager to coach them, yet receive insufficient coaching, experience lower job satisfaction. The findings are consistent with other studies on coaching

(Thach, 2002; Whitmore, 2010), that suggest that leaders who fail to provide coaching can decrease desired employee outcomes.

In relation to the ‘informing’ dimension, the results indicate that when employees desire high levels of empowering leadership behaviours, yet leaders display low levels of empowering leadership, job satisfaction decreases. Such findings are consistent with literature on empowering leadership theory, which has shown that leaders who inform followers and provide autonomy can increase desired employee outcomes (Arnold et al., 2000). Further, research has suggested that informing individuals of changes and future direction of the organisation can enhance an individual’s capability to make strategic decisions that are in alignment with the goals of the organisation (Kirkman and Rosen, 1999).

Incongruence or misfit between individual preference for leader ‘concern’ and perception of this empowering leadership behaviour showed the most substantial detrimental effect on job satisfaction. Literature explains concern through supportive leadership, described as expressing concern for, and taking accountability of follower needs and preferences (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Further, literature suggests that the most fundamental function of support/ concern is through emotional support, by providing sympathy, care, listening and being liked by leaders. While support/ concern has typically been viewed positively in literature (e.g. Rafferty et al., 2006; Schyns et al., 2009), the current study suggests that lack of fit can be detrimental on job satisfaction when individual preference is not met, shedding some light to considering individual preference for concern.

Incongruence between employee preference for empowering leadership and leader behaviour had a stronger impact on job satisfaction than work engagement, and across certain behaviours (e.g. concern). The lack of significant results on incongruence at levels of employee preference and level on empowering leadership on work engagement may be due

to the positive effect that some empowering behaviours elicit (e.g. leading by example as influencing positive behaviours), regardless of meeting employee preference to leadership behaviours. Other empowering leadership behaviours showed significant results on incongruence between low levels of employee preference and high levels of empowering leadership behaviours, suggesting that some individuals desire low levels of empowering behaviours. This indicates the likelihood that while not all empowering leadership behaviours require consideration of individual preference, some empowering behaviours can increase overall work engagement and job satisfaction when employee preference is considered.

Need satisfaction theory at work has been examined to ascertain whether meeting the psychological needs of an individual enhances autonomy through work role performance (Leroy et al., 2015). Studies have shown that when leaders are able to satisfy the preferences of an employee, through self-determination theory (SDT), to enhance feelings of self-efficacy of one's work and autonomy, this results in higher fit with their work environment (Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009). Research on individual preferences at work has shown that high need satisfaction can enhance commitment to the organisation, work performance, motivation, job engagement, and job satisfaction (Leroy et al, 2015; Vandenabeele, 2014; Mohammad, 2006). These positive associations can be ascribed to a sense of fulfilment, reflected on valued workplace attitudes and behaviours (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). Conversely, unfulfilled needs may be detrimental to individual outcomes. With regards to leadership, findings from a recent study show that in the absence of need fulfilment, employees were less likely to feel satisfied within their job, feel less self-efficacy and feel less committed to their leader (Kovjanic et al., 2012). This further indicates that the level of empowering leadership preferred by employees is a fundamental function to increase desired employee outcomes at the individual level.

The current study examined the role of meeting employee preference to empowering leadership on job satisfaction and behavioural engagement. Based on the findings discussed, fit or lack thereof had a greater bearing on job satisfaction than work engagement. Overall, it is likely that meeting individual preference could play a critical role in improving desired outcomes. By identifying the preferences of individuals, job satisfaction may increase, leading to a decrease of turnover rates and absenteeism (Dittrich & Carrell, 1979; Harter & Schmidt, 2002; Wright & Bonett, 2007), which could save on costs involved and time spent (e.g. advertising and training) replacing employees within the organisation.

Limitations

A potential limitation of the current study is the small sample size (N=151), drawn from two white collar organisations within New Zealand. This limits the validity and generalisability of the findings to other work contexts, managerial roles, and cultures (Charter, 1999). Thus, future research is needed to investigate how congruence affects employee preference for leadership behaviours on outcome variables.

Given the cross-sectional, self-report approach taken, another potential limitation of the current study is social desirability bias and common-method variance. The single-rater, self-report approach introduces biases, as participants may choose to answer leadership and personal preference items in a subjectively positive or negative way (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Social desirability refers to individual rating items based on being perceived in a positive light (Edwards & Cable, 2009), instead of answering their true preference to leadership that may not be deemed popular within the individual's organisation. However, the study did try to limit social desirability by making the survey anonymous, as research has shown that respondents may respond more honestly when their identity has been hidden (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Moreover, though self-report may skew leader behaviour assessments, it is the most appropriate way to ascertain people's preferences, workplace attitudes, and to examine

whether mismatch between leader behaviour and personal preference influences important outcomes.

As the current study was cross-sectional, causality cannot be determined. Future studies could rely on a longitudinal design and multi-source data to establish its validity. The limitations discussed suggest that the current study is susceptible to biases; however the benefits of the current study are evident. The results show that discrepancy between individual preference on certain leadership behaviours and empowering leadership behaviours influences job satisfaction.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

Organisations that are moving away from traditional bureaucratic people management systems towards practices that contribute to an innovative and adaptive workforce do so to improve behaviours and attitudes of employees, and ensure high performance (Cameron & Quinn, 1999). While empowering leadership has been shown to positively influence such outcomes as job satisfaction, self-efficacy and creativity (e.g. Harris et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2010), other research suggests that too much empowering leadership may lead to a burdening process, which has shown to increase work-related tension and decrease employee performance (Cheong et al., 2016). The present study has attempted to clarify these discrepant results by testing whether incongruence between empowering leadership behaviours and employee preference for these behaviours was detrimental to job satisfaction and engagement. The findings suggest that organisations move away from generic leadership frameworks and consider using measures to identify employee preference to such leadership behaviours in order to improve desired outcomes. This approach is consistent with P-E fit literature tenets, which suggest that individuals who share the same core values or beliefs as their organisation (e.g. high levels of P-E fit), may lead to higher levels of desired employee

outcomes (e.g. Giauque et al., 2014; Yu, 2009). This highlights the importance of identifying individual preferences to facets within an organisation.

While there is an abundance of research linking empowering leadership to work engagement and job satisfaction, other outcome variables could also be explored in future research. For example, literature emphasises the association between empowering leadership and turnover intentions, performance, creativity and productivity (Park et al., 2017; Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Srivastava et al., 2006; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Based on these findings, such outcomes would be of interest to measure in relation to fit between employee preference and leadership behaviours.

This study highlights the importance of taking a closer look at meeting individual preference to specific behaviours, which could be explored in other leadership frameworks. For instance, transformational leadership also emphasises the need to show concern for employees through ‘individualised consideration’ dimension (Bass, 1990; Seltzer & Bass, 1990). Based on the findings of the current study, regarding supportive/concern behaviours, perhaps future research could investigate whether other types of leadership frameworks show incongruence between individual preference and leadership style.

Further investigation is needed within this area of research, on the relationships between the variables on a larger sample size, across multiple work contexts. Such investigation would enable further understanding of incongruence between employee preference to specific leadership behaviours and leadership behaviours exhibited by managers. Also, further research could explore whether different tiers of management affect employee preference to certain leadership behaviours. For instance, literature has shown that employees at the ground floor are more influenced by their immediate manager than by executive leaders within the organisation (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). However, as

organisational culture and decision making is majorly influenced by higher level managers, perhaps future studies could examine discrepancies between organisational culture and employee preferences. This would be of interest to researchers as there is already an abundance of literature examining the importance of P-O fit and P-E fit on outcome variables (French, Caplan & Van Harrison, 1982; Giauque et al., 2014; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001).

Conclusion

The current research sought to explore whether and how discrepancies between employee preference to empowering leadership behaviours and empowering leadership influence behavioural work engagement and job satisfaction. It was proposed that incongruence at levels of employee preference to empowering leadership behaviours and empowering leadership would result in lower levels of job satisfaction and behavioural engagement, when compared to congruence between employee preference for empowering leadership behaviours and empowering leadership. The findings indicate that incongruence or discrepancy for some empowering behaviours, namely leading by example, coaching and concern, led to decreased levels of job satisfaction. The results show that incongruence at low levels of employee preference to empowering leadership behaviours and high levels of empowering leadership resulted in a decrease in leading by example, coaching, and concern behaviours showing that satisfying employee preference can diminish the positive outcomes from high levels of empowering leadership behaviours. This finding suggests that high levels of empowering leadership behaviours will not always elicit desired outcomes. This study provides a unique contribution to leadership literature by showing that high levels of empowering leadership behaviours will elicit desired outcomes.

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Appendices

Appendix A - Research Information and Consent to Participate

Information & Consent

My name is Samantha Ryder and I am a student of the University of Canterbury. I am conducting a study as part of my Master's degree in Applied Psychology. The aim of my study is to investigate employee needs in relation to their managers' leadership style.

If you choose to take part in this study, your involvement in this project requires that you complete an anonymous online questionnaire that **takes no more than 15 minutes**.

Participants can go into a **draw to win one of three \$300 grocery vouchers**. If you want to be in the draw to win, the contact information will be collected on a different link to separate your survey responses from the contact information.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. **If you choose to withdraw the information already provided, please state it in one of the open-ended fields.**

The results of the project may be published in peer-reviewed journals, and the thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation.

The project is being carried out as a requirement for The Department of Psychology, at the University of Canterbury by Samantha Ryder under the supervision of Joana Kuntz, who can be contacted at joana.kuntz@canterbury.ac.nz. She will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project. This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

- I understand that my participation involves the completion of an anonymous online survey.
- I understand that participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation includes the withdrawal of any information I have provided.
- I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and that any published or reported results will not identify me. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

Appendix B - Ethics Approval



HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Rebecca Robinson
Telephone: +64 03 369 4588, Extn 94588
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2017/46

3 July 2017

Samantha Lynnette Bryant Ryder
Psychology
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Samantha

The Human Ethics Committee advises that your research proposal "Empowering Leadership: An Examination of Fit with Individual Needs" has been considered and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 18th June 2017, **and the following:**

Please proofread Appendix C, paragraph 2 for legibility.

Best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

pp. R. Robinson

Associate Professor Jane Maidment
Chair
University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee

Appendix C - Scale items

Empowering Leadership Questionnaire

My Manager:

Leading By Example

Sets high standards for performance by his/her own behavior
Works as hard as he/she can
Works as hard as anyone in my work group
Sets a good example by the way he/she behaves
Leads by example

Participative Decision-Making

Encourages work group members to express ideas/suggestions
Listens to my work group's ideas and suggestions
Uses my work group's suggestions to make decisions that affect us
Gives all work group members a chance to voice their opinions
Considers my work group's ideas when he/she disagrees with them
Makes decisions that are based only on his/her own ideas

Coaching

Helps my work group see areas in which we need more training
Suggests ways to improve my work group's performance
Encourages work group members to solve problems together
Encourages work group members to exchange information with one another
Provides help to work group members
Teaches work group members how to solve problems on their own
Pays attention to my work group's efforts
Tells my work group when we perform well
Supports my work group's efforts
Helps my work group focus on our goals
Helps develop good relations among work group members

Informing

Explains company decisions
Explains company goals
Explains how my work group fits into the company
Explains the purpose of the company's policies to my work group
Explains rules and expectations to my work group
Explains his/her decisions and actions to my work group

Showing Concern/Interacting with the Team

Cares about work group members' personal problems
Shows concern for work group members' well-being
Treats work group members as equals
Takes the time to discuss work group members' concerns patiently
Shows concern for work group members' success
Stays in touch with my work group
Gets along with my work group members

Empowering Leadership Fit

Gives work group members honest and fair answers
Knows what work is being done in my work group
Finds time to chat with work group members

Behavioural Work Engagement scale

I do more than is expected of me
I really push myself to work beyond what is expected of me
I am willing to put in extra effort without being asked
I often go above what is expected of me to help my team be successful
I work harder than expected to help my company be successful

Overall Job Satisfaction scale

All in all, I am satisfied with my job
In general, I like my job
In general, I like working here